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A SYNTHETICAL DEMONSTRATION *of the* RULE
for the QUADRATURE *of* SIMPLE CURVES,
in the Analysis per Equationes terminorum numero infinitas.
By the Rev. M. YOUNG, D. D.

DOCTOR Wallis, about the year 1651, having met with the mathematical writings of Torricelli, in which, amongst other things, he explains Cavalerius's attempt to render the ancient method of Exhaustions more concise by his *Geometry* of indivisibles, conceived that an *Arithmetic* of infinites might be applied to the contemplation of curve lines with success; and that perhaps the quadrature of the circle, were it at all possible, might finally be attained in this manner. What led him to these expectations, as he tells us in his dedication to Oughtred, was this: the ratio of the infinite circles of a cone to as many of a cylinder on the same base and of the same altitude,

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altitude, was known, viz. as 1 to 3; but all their diameters in the triangle through the axis of the cone, to as many in the parallelogram through the axis of the cylinder, as 1 to 2. In like manner it was known, that all the circles in the parabolic conoid were to as many circles in a cylinder as 1 to 2; but all the diameters of the former to those of the latter as 2 to 3. It was also manifest, that the right-lines of the triangle were arithmetically proportional, or as the numbers 1, 2, 3, &c. therefore, the circles of the cone (being in a duplicate ratio of their diameters) as 1, 4, 9, &c. Also the circles of the parabolic conoid (being in the duplicate ratio of the ordinates, that is, in the ratio of the diameters) were as 1, 2, 3, &c. therefore their diameters as $\sqrt{1}$, $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{3}$, &c. He therefore hoped, that from knowing the ratio of a series of circles or squares (which is the same thing) to as many equals, he should be able to discover what was the ratio of their diameters or sides to as many equals; and that if this were once proved universally, the quadrature of the circle would follow of consequence. For as it was already known, that all the parallel circles in a sphere were to as many in a cylinder as 2 to 3; if it could be from thence discovered what was the ratio of the sum of all the diameters of the one to the sum of all the diameters of the other, the quadrature of the circle would be attained; as the former sum constitutes the area of the circle, and the latter the area of the circumscribed square; the geometrical problem being thus reduced to one purely arithmetical. Observing then the analogy between the terms of certain infinite series, and the ordinates of certain curves, he discovered rules for finding the sums of these series, and consequently attained the quadrature of those curves whose ordinates were proportional to the terms of these series. In
this

this enquiry he began with the more simple series, first considering arithmetical progressions; then he proceeded to those whose terms were as the squares, cubes, biquadrates, &c. or as the square roots, cube roots, &c. of the terms of those arithmetical progressions. He afterwards considered those progressions whose terms were as any dimension whatsoever of the terms of the arithmetical progressions; that is, the indices or exponents of whose dimensions were as any numbers, integral, fractional, or surd, whether positive or negative. He considered these progressions as consisting of an infinite number of terms, the last term, which represented the last ordinate of the curve, being still finite; and the intermediate terms from 0 to the last, being infinite in number, represented ordinates applied to the axis, at infinitely small and equal distances, between the vertex and last ordinate. Or perhaps these terms represented any other lines right or curve; or any plain or curve surfaces, in the case of solids, which were proportional to them. At length, by an induction of particulars, he came to this general theorem, which is the 64th of his *Arithmetica Infinitorum*, “ In any infinite
 “ series of quantities beginning from 0, and continually increas-
 “ ing according to any power whatsoever, whether simple or
 “ compounded of such as are simple, the ratio of all the terms
 “ of such a series is to as many times the greatest, as unity to the
 “ index of that power increased by unity.” And this is the same in substance with Sir I. Newton’s first rule for the quadrature of simple curves, in his *Anal. per Equat. t. n. infin.* which was investigated, in the manner just now mentioned, by an induction of particulars by Wallis, but which Newton demonstrated universally by an indefinite index, as was his manner, comprehending, in one general proposition, all those particular cases which

others had demonstrated with limitations. In the analytical demonstration however which he has given of this theorem, certain quantities are omitted as being indefinitely little ; and therefore it is not delivered with that *ακριβεια*, which is required in subjects of this nature. Fermat has given us a synthetical demonstration of this theorem, which Doctor Horsely has inserted in his notes on this tract of Newton, but it is so tedious and prolix, that even the analytical is preferable to it. I shall here give a synthetical demonstration also of the same general proposition on the principles of *prime and ultimate ratios*, a method of reasoning which Newton seems to have had some idea of even at the time of his writing this Analysis, in the year 1669, though probably he did not bring it to perfection until eighteen years after, when he first published the Principia.

RULE I. QUAD. of SIMPLE CURVES.

Plate III.
Fig. 2.

LET the base AB of any curve AD have BD for its perpendicular ordinate ; and let AB=X, BD=Y ; also let a be a given quantity, and m, n, whole numbers. Then if $Y=aX^{\frac{m}{n}}$, it shall be, area ABD = $\frac{n}{m+n} X^{\frac{m+n}{n}}$.

LET DC, AC, drawn through D and A parallel to AB and DB, meet in C ; draw the ordinate db indefinitely near to DB, meeting CD in s ; and through d draw rp parallel to AB. Since $Y=aX^{\frac{m}{n}}$, the moment of Y will be equal to the moment of

of $aX^{\frac{m}{n}}$; that is, $y = \frac{am}{n} X^{\frac{m-n}{n}} x$, by Cas. 5. Lem. 2. B. 2.

Principia. Now the rectangle $sDBb$ is the rectangle under the ordinate and moment of the abscisse, that is, Yx ; and the rectangle $CDpr$ is the rectangle under the abscisse and moment of the ordinate, that is, Xy ; therefore $bD : Cp :: Yx : Xy$; that is, substituting its value for y ,

$$\text{as } Yx : \frac{am}{n} X^{\frac{m}{n}} x ;$$

$$\text{or as } Y : \frac{am}{n} X^{\frac{m}{n}} ;$$

$$\text{or as } aX^{\frac{m}{n}} : \frac{am}{n} X^{\frac{m}{n}}, \text{ that is, as } 1 \text{ to } \frac{m}{n}.$$

By a like process it may be shewn, that if AB be divided into an indefinite number of parts, and upon each there be constructed a rectangle ob in the same manner as on bB , and through g there be drawn tq parallel to the base; the rectangle ob will be to the corresponding rectangle rq ultimately in the given ratio of 1 to $\frac{m}{n}$. Therefore the sum of all the indefinitely little rectangles sB will be to the sum of the corresponding rectangles Cp , in the same ratio; therefore the curve ADB is to the curve ACD as 1 to $\frac{m}{n}$, Cor. Lem. 4. B. 1. Prin. and the curve ADB to the rectangle $ACDB$, as 1 to $\frac{m+n}{n}$; but the rectangle $ACDB = YX = aX^{\frac{m+n}{n}}$; there-

fore the curve ADB is to $aX^{\frac{m+n}{n}}$ as 1 to $\frac{m+n}{n}$, and therefore equal to $\frac{n}{m+n} \times aX^{\frac{m+n}{n}}$. Q. E. D.

IF the ordinate BD be oblique to the base, the area, found as above, must be diminished in the ratio of radius to the sine of the angle made by the ordinate and base.

THIS demonstration being admitted, the whole doctrine of quadratures becomes a branch of *prime and ultimate ratios*, and consequently of pure geometry.

WE are to observe, that the reason why the curves treated of above are perfectly quadrable is, because the rectangles inscribed in the curve are to the respective rectangles inscribed in the exterior space, ultimately, in a given ratio, whence the curve will be to that space (Cor. Lem. 4. Prin.) and consequently to the circumscribed rectangle, in a given ratio. But this is not the case in the circle, which therefore is not quadrable by this method, at least in its present state. But though the ratio of the rectangles inscribed in a quadrant to their corresponding rectangles in the exterior space of a circumscribed square perpetually varies from the beginning of the quadrant to the end, yet this variation is regular, beginning from the finite ratio of 2 to 1, and constantly approaching the infinite ratio of 1 to nothing. The law of which approach may be thus determined :

If

IF a square APCO be circumscribed about a quadrant ACO, and the radius AO be divided into any number of equal parts whatsoever, and on these parts rectangles as moBD be erected, and inscribed in the quadrant, and through the extremities of the ordinates nm, BD, right lines tp. rB be drawn parallel to the radius AO, and thus as many corresponding rectangles, as rBtp, be inscribed in the exterior space: then the breadth of these rectangles being diminished indefinitely, each rectangle in the quadrant will be to its corresponding rectangle in the exterior space as DR to DO, that is, as the sum of the radius AO and the segment DO between the centre and ordinate to that segment.

Plate III.
Fig. 3.

LET the abscisse AD=X; the ordinate BD=Y; the diameter AR=a.

$Y^2 = aX - X^2$, from the nature of the circle.

Therefore $2Yy = ax - 2Yx$ (Lem. 2. B. 2. Prin.), $y = \frac{ax - 2Xx}{2\sqrt{aX - X^2}}^{\frac{1}{2}}$;

but moBD is to Brpt as Yx to Xy.

that is, as Yx to $\frac{aXx - 2X^2x}{2\sqrt{aX - X^2}}^{\frac{1}{2}}$

that is, as Y to $\frac{aX - 2X^2}{2\sqrt{aX - X^2}}^{\frac{1}{2}}$

that is, as $\sqrt{aX - X^2}^{\frac{1}{2}}$ to $\frac{aX - 2X^2}{2\sqrt{aX - X^2}}^{\frac{1}{2}}$

that is, as $2aX - 2X^2$ to $aX - 2X^2$

or, as $a - X$ to $\frac{1}{2}a - X$, or as DR to DO.

IN

IN A, the extremity of the diameter, DR is to DO as 2 to 1; as D approaches O, this ratio continually encreases, and in O this ratio becomes 1 to nothing.

HENCE if the radius AO be divided into any number of equal parts, and there be constituted a series of fractions, whose numerators are the natural numbers increasing from unity to that number of parts, and whose denominators are the continuation of that series; then the rectangles inscribed in the circle will be to the respective rectangles in the exterior space, ultimately as 1 to the successive terms of this series beginning with the least. Thus, suppose the radius divided into 8 equal parts, then the ultimate ratio of the corresponding rectangles from the beginning of the quadrant will be the ratio of 1 to the terms of the following series:

$$\frac{8}{16}, \frac{7}{15}, \frac{6}{14}, \frac{5}{13}, \frac{4}{12}, \frac{3}{11}, \frac{2}{10}, \frac{1}{9}.$$

ON similar principles we may demonstrate the following theorem in the Analysis Equationum, &c. in a much more simple and elegant manner than by the method of fluxions.

Plate III.
Fig. 4.

LET ALE be an ellipse, whose $\frac{1}{2}$ transverse axis is CL, $\frac{1}{2}$ conjugate AC; let CB=x, BD=y, AC=c, and CL=t. The ultimate ratio of DG:GH, is the ratio of DB:BT, \therefore ultimately, $DG^2 : GH^2 :: Y^2 : BT^2$.

$$y^2 = \frac{t^2}{c^2} \times \overline{c^2 - x^2} \text{ from the nature of the figure;}$$

$$BT = \frac{c^2}{x} - x, \text{ and } BT^2 = \frac{(c^2 - x^2)^2}{x^2}$$

$$\therefore DG^2$$

$$\therefore DG^2 = GH^2 \times \frac{t^2 x^2}{c^4 - c^2 x^2}$$

$$DH^2 = HG^2 + DG^2 = GH^2 + GH^2 \times \frac{t^2 x^2}{c^4 - c^2 x^2} = GH^2 \times \frac{c^4 - c^2 x^2 + t^2 x^2}{c^4 - c^2 x^2}$$

$$\therefore DH = GH \times \frac{\sqrt{c^4 - c^2 x^2 + t^2 x^2}}{\sqrt{c^4 - c^2 x^2}}; \text{ that is, supposing } c=1, t^2 - c^2 = a,$$

and $c^2 = b$.

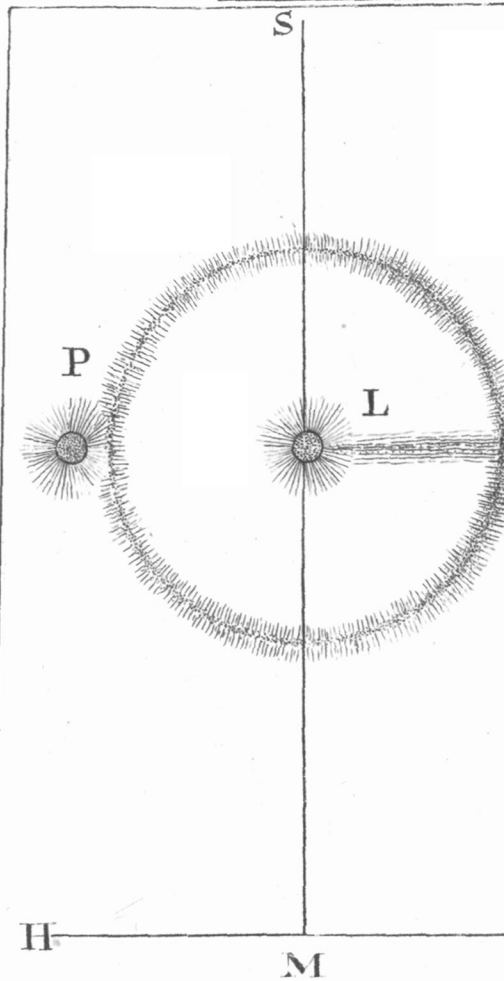
$$DH = GH \times \frac{\sqrt{1 + ax^2}}{\sqrt{1 - bx^2}}; \text{ or, the moment of the arch is equal}$$

to the moment of the abscisse multiplied into $\frac{\sqrt{1 + ax^2}}{\sqrt{1 - bx^2}}$.

Wherefore a curve, whose ordinate is this latter quantity, increases in the same manner as the elliptical arch; and consequently the area described by that ordinate is analogous to the length of the elliptical arch; so that both may be denoted by the same algebraical expression.

PLATE III

Fig. 2.



Let the drawing be

SYNTHETIC DEMONSTRATION &c.

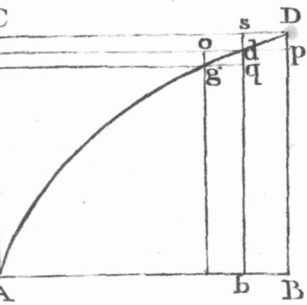


Fig. 3.

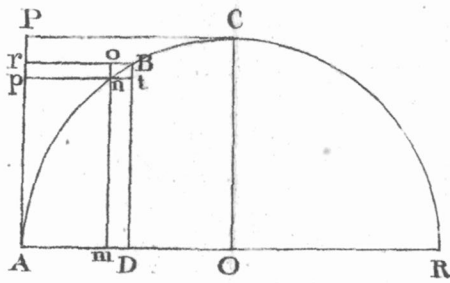
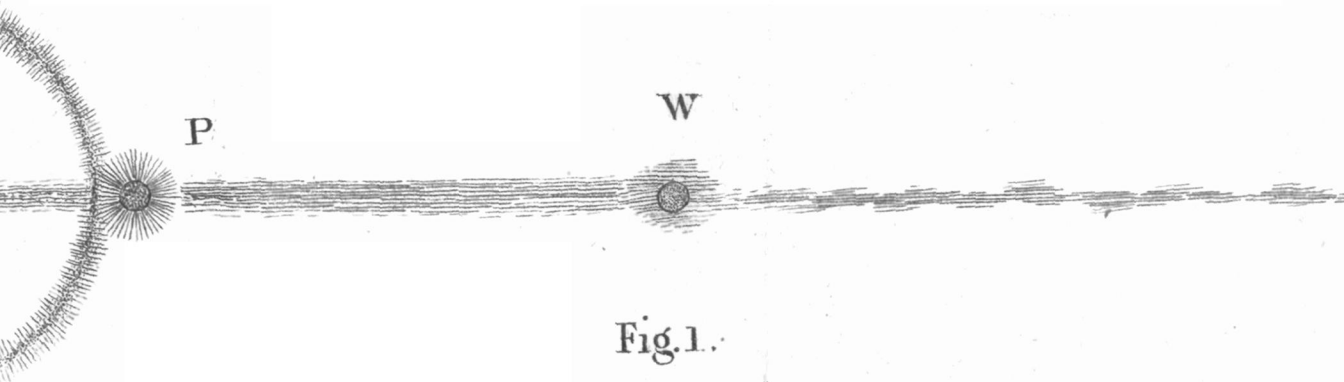
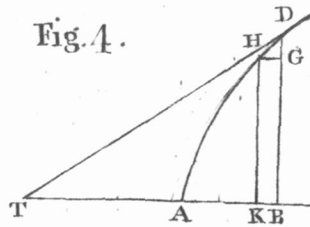
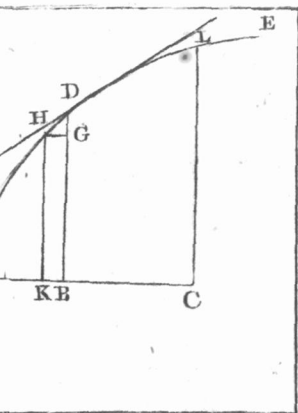


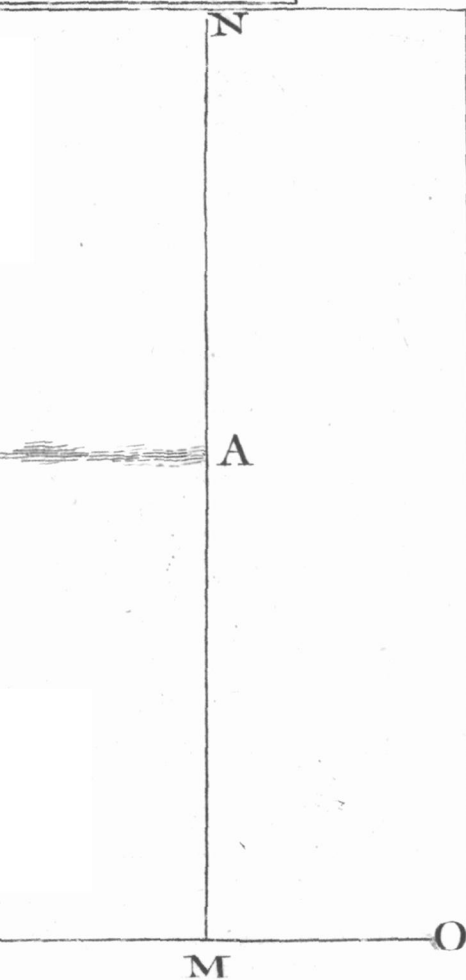
Fig. 4.



q be bent inwards till MM becomes a semicircle, then will SM represent
 the position of C, the point of contact of the line with the arc of the circle.

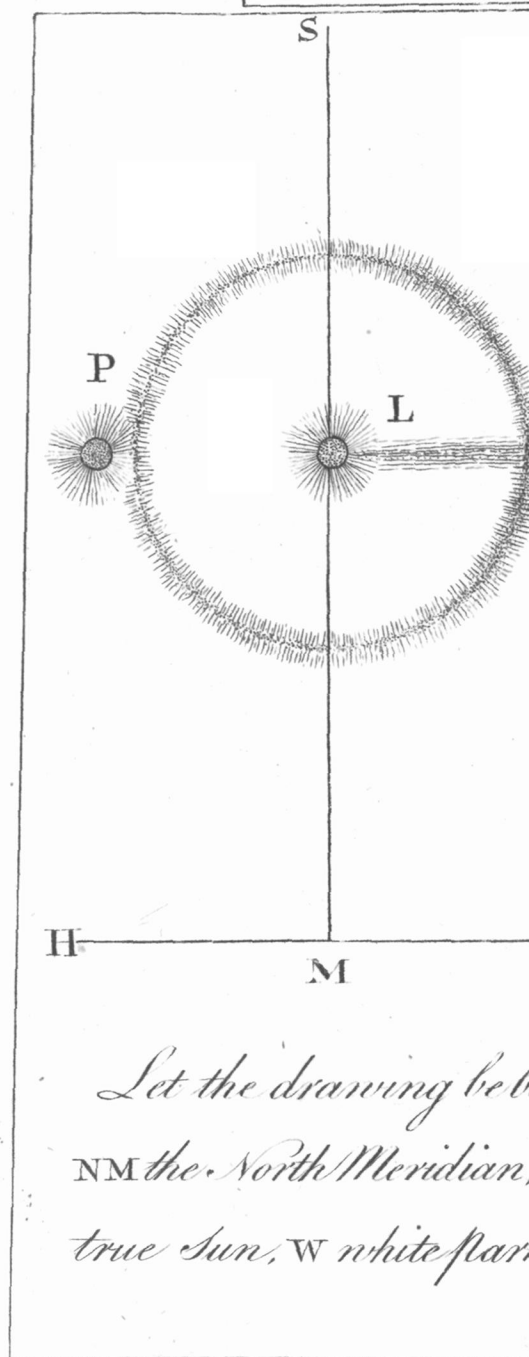


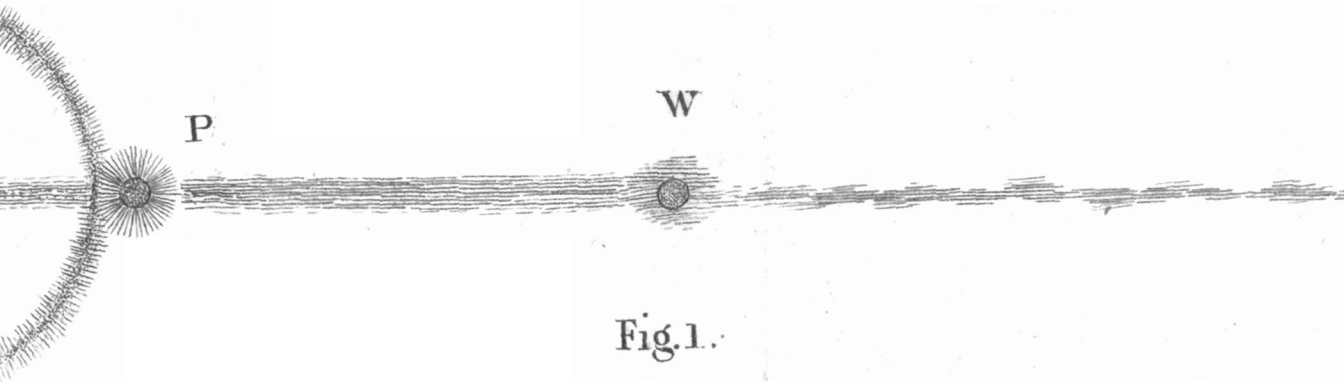
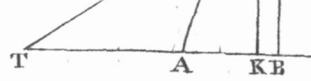
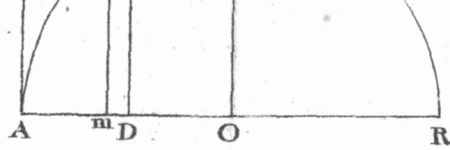
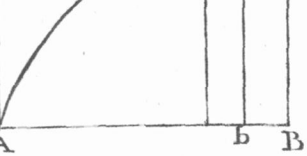
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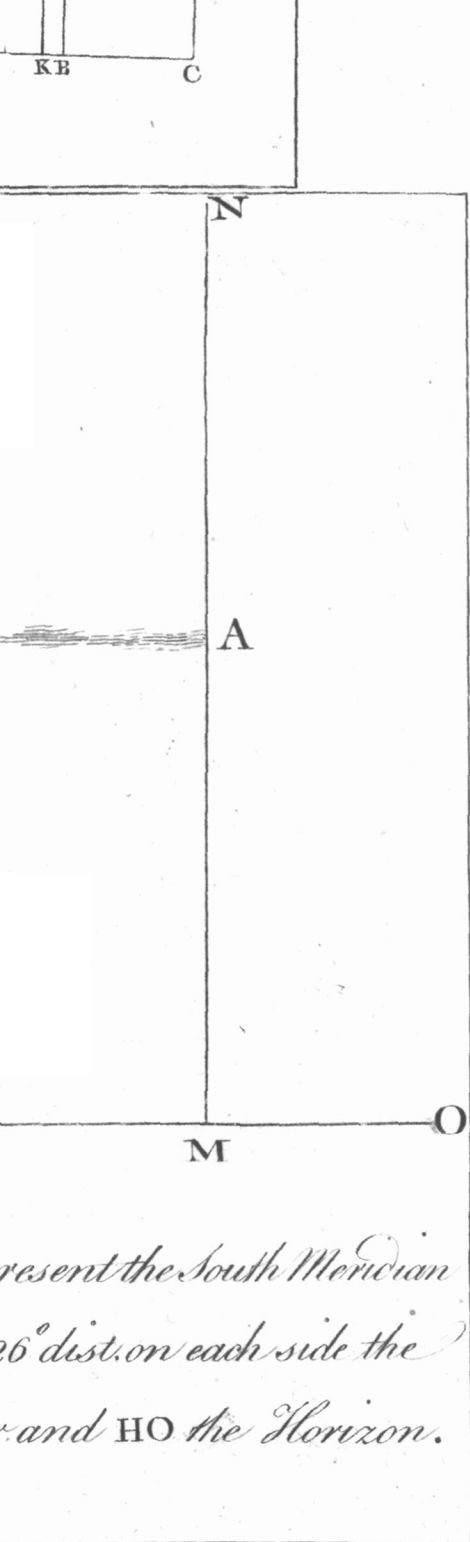
represent the South Meridian

of the Earth and the





be bent inwards till MM becomes a semicircle, then will SM represent
 idian, PP prismatic Circle with two prismatic Suns or parhelia at 26° dis
 parhelion at 90° dist from the true Sun LA luminous Almucantar and



I Ford sculp.